A Framing Analysis: The NBA's "One-And-Done" Rule

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Framing the NBA’s “One-and-Done” Rule

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts
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Dedication

I would like to dedicate my thesis to the memory of my good friend Tony Salerno. He had a tremendous impact on my life and the lives of countless others. Rest in peace, buddy. We all miss you.
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My thanks to Michael Mitrook for serving as my thesis chair and helping me throughout this entire process. I would also like to thank Kelly Werder and Kelli Burns for serving on my thesis committee. This was a challenging process and I’m forever in debt to each of you for your assistance.

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Abstract

In 2006, the NBA introduced the “one-and-done” rule that restricted high school graduates to enter directly into the NBA draft following high school. In turn, a high school prospect would essentially now have the option of playing professionally elsewhere (most likely overseas), enter the NBA’s Developmental League, or play NCAA basketball. The rule has proved to be quite controversial, as it has had a great effect on both NBA and NCAA basketball, as well as the players. Various media outlets have been quite vocal not only about the rule itself, but the perceived effects it has had on both collegiate and professional basketball. This study will utilize framing theory to explore the way the media has presented the issue to the public, its causal interpretation, any moral evaluations necessary, and any solutions to the problem. This study will utilize a content analysis to analyze not only the media’s presentation of the rule, but also what frames have been formed pertaining to the rule’s successes and failures. The study will also aim to give a greater understanding of how the basketball media form frames.
Chapter 1: Introduction

In the summer of 2006, the NBA introduced a new rule concerning the eligibility of recent high school graduates. The “one-and-done” rule, as it has universally been referred to, states that all high school graduates would gain eligibility for the draft one year after their high school graduation as long as they turn 19 years old by the end of the calendar year of the draft (NBPA.com, n.d.). Prior to 2006, high school players were eligible for the NBA draft immediately upon graduation. The rule has been quite controversial since its inception and the media have framed it in a variety of ways.

Some media have chosen to frame the issue as one in that high school players are being cheated out of the opportunity to pursue their dreams in the NBA. They would cite the ideology that in a capitalist society, players should be allowed to exercise their earning power in a free market and not be inhibited by an arbitrary rule (Rosenberg, 2009). Conversely, others in the media have framed the issue as one in which the NBA as a privately owned business has the right to implement whatever eligibility restrictions they deem necessary (Cherner, 2012).

Nevertheless, the NBA’s decision to implement the “one-and-done” rule in 2006 has not only had a great impact on the NBA and its players, but it has also affected NCAA basketball and its players. Without the NBA as a viable option after high school, players who would have most likely declared for the draft now find themselves “forced”
to play college basketball. While it is true that these players have other options, such as playing overseas, very few players have decided to play anywhere other than college.

Before 2006, several current NBA stars made the decision to declare for the NBA draft directly after high school such as Kobe Bryant, LeBron James, Kevin Garnett, and Dwight Howard, and immediately had great success. Conversely, players such as Jonathan Bender, Sebastian Telfair, and Kwame Brown also entered the league after high school and never found the success that many pro scouts believed they would. Brown’s career in particular has been constant fodder for sports media. Those in favor of the “one-and-done” rule cite players such as Brown as immature and under-developed (Donaldson, 2012). They believe that if a player such as Brown were to play college basketball before entering the NBA, both the team and player would benefit. The team would have a longer period of time to evaluate the player’s skill set before using a valuable draft pick to acquire that player. The player of course would benefit from elite amateur competition, top-tier coaching, and the opportunity to mature in college. These frames are quite commonly used to justify the “one-and-done” rule as a solution to the problem (Paulson, 2010).

Conversely, as previously stated, many players that left high school directly for the NBA have enjoyed great success professionally. Critics of the “one-and-done” rule would cite the old adage “if it ain’t broke, don’t fix it” (Paulson, 2007). In other words, with preps-to-pros players such as LeBron James and Kobe Bryant arguably being the two biggest stars in the league, why would the league work so diligently to stop high school players from immediately joining the NBA? Some believe it has more to do with the NCAA than it does the NBA.
Most avid basketball fans remember Larry Bird’s Indiana State team battle Magic Johnson’s Michigan State squad for the 1979 NCAA Championship. Younger fans may recall watching Chris Webber and his Fab 5 teammates go head-to-head with Christian Laettner and Grant Hill’s Duke teams in the early 1990s. However, players such as Bryant and James never played college basketball and thus will never be associated with the NCAA or any of its universities. From the late 1990s to mid 2000s, while many of the elite high school players decided against playing college basketball, the NCAA watched its product suffer greatly. The level of competition, as well as its popularity had substantially decreased (Manfred, 2012). Hence, many believe that the NBA introduced the “one-and-done” rule not only in their own best interests, but to also throw the NCAA a life preserver. With the rule instated, top-level recruits will now have to attend college for at least one year. Not only does the NCAA benefit from having an elite talent that would have otherwise skipped college play in the NBA, but it also allows the NBA team that selects the player to acquire a player that has already been sufficiently marketed via the NCAA.

For example, when Dwight Howard was selected first overall from Southwest Atlanta Christian Academy, many people were skeptical about the pick. The skepticism had very little to do with Howard’s skillset, it had more to do with the potential of the second overall pick Emeka Okafor, an already proven commodity (Ribak, 2012). Okafor played three seasons at University of Connecticut that culminated in him winning the Big East Player of the Year Award as well as an NCAA Championship in 2004, and many people believed he was the talent the Orlando Magic should build their future around. Although eight years later, it has become quite apparent that Howard was the more
skilled NBA player, very few people knew anything about him prior to his selection. Conversely, Okafor was quite well known before the 2004 draft. He had already been sufficiently marketed by the NCAA and the NBA was receiving a product that was ready to sell, not one that they would have to market and promote in-house such as Howard.

So, why the trepidation on the part of the players to play NCAA basketball? It all comes down to money. Simply stated, the NCAA relishes in its amateur status and continues to market their players as “student/athletes”, students who just so happen to play a sport. Not only does the NCAA not pay its players, they strongly enforce laws that prevent their players from profiting off their image and likeness in any way while playing college basketball, although the NCAA reserves the right to use those players’ images and likenesses for their own profit (Farrey, 2012). This has led to several recent discussions pertaining to whether or not college athletes should be paid. Since 2006, under the current “one-and-done” rule, players such as Kevin Durant, who before 2006 would have most likely went directly to the NBA, have had to play at least one season of college basketball. With Durant playing what is essentially a “free” season of basketball at University of Texas, the NCAA gets what they want: the opportunity to profit off an elite basketball talent; and the NBA will eventually get what they want: an additional year to evaluate their talent as well as a prepackaged, already marketed and promoted player to add to their league. Although it would seem everyone (except the players) benefits from the “one-and-done” rule, some of the media have suggested that the “one-and-done” rule hurts NCAA basketball more than it helps it.

While several media outlets have presented the “one-and-done” rule as a potential savior of college basketball, others have had a decisively different take on the rule. Some
have suggested a solution similar to Major League Baseball’s draft system. This option would allow a player to declare for the NBA draft directly after high school, however, if he decides to go to college, he would not be able to leave to pursue a professional career until after his junior season (Helin, 2012). Some believe this would be the perfect alternative to the “one-and-done” rule, while others believe it’s just a tool for the NCAA to get three “free” seasons out of a player as opposed to the one “free” season the NCAA gets now.

Many others actually blame the “one-and-done” rule for compromising the student/athlete. They commonly cite the first three picks in the 2008 NBA draft: Derrick Rose, Michael Beasley, and O.J. Mayo, all “one-and-done” players who played at Memphis, Kansas State, and USC respectively, as players who had no business attending universities (Parrish, 2011). Rose was accused of having another student take his SATs for him; Beasley has come forth and exposed his former agent and former AAU coach for allegedly violating NCAA laws and federal laws governing agent conduct; and O.J. Mayo received numerous gifts and improper benefits (Parrish, 2011). Both Memphis and USC were forced to vacate all of their wins from their 2007/08 seasons while Kansas State’s fate still remains undecided. Those who oppose the “one-and-done” rule routinely cite situations such as that of Rose, Beasley, and Mayo as quite avoidable without the “one-and-done” rule (Parrish, 2011). They suggest that the NCAA is better off without players that do not want to attend college and should not force them to do so.

As one can see, the NBA’s “one-and-done” rule has been presented in a variety of ways each with its own problem definition, causal interpretations, moral evaluations, and
treatment recommendations. This study will not only acknowledge these various presentations, but will also attempt to examine how these presentations were formed.

Utilizing the framework presented by the theory of framing, this study examines relevant literature on framing theory, frame analysis, and makes recommendations pertaining to future research on framing in communications. Using a content analysis, this study will examine both media concerning the “one-and-done” rule.

The next chapter will provide a background on the theory of framing and how it is practiced in today’s media.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

Framing Definition and Background

Erving Goffman, a Canadian-born writer and sociologist first introduced the concept of framing in 1974. A frame can be defined as a “conceptual tool which media and individuals rely on to convey, interpret, and evaluate information” (Neuman, Just, & Crigler, 1992, p. 60). It has similarly been defined as “a central organizing idea for the news content that supplies a context that suggests what the issue is through selection, emphasis, exclusion, and elaboration” (Tankard, Hendrickson, Silberman, Bliss & Ghanem, 1991, 11). Entman (1993) further explains the process of framing when he states, “To frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text” (p. 52). Entman believes that the main purpose of framing is to provide people with a quick and easy way to process information. To do this, people will activate mental filters (a series of which is called a schema) to make sense of incoming messages. It is that “schema of interpretation” that Goffman (1974) believes provides a context for understanding information that enables individuals to “locate, perceive, identify and label” an issue, topic, or experience (p. 21). This would of course support Entman’s idea that “frames” are simply “frames of reference” and are undoubtedly rooted in one’s already existing culture. As Scheufele notes, frames allow individuals to construct causal relationships within a topic or issue to better understand it and how it coincides with what they already know (Scheufele, 2000).
To better explain the concept of framing, researchers often break down the theory metaphorically. Patterson (1993) equated a frame to “a ‘cognitive window’ through which a news story is ‘seen’” (p. 59). When a window or picture frame is applied to a subject, only so much of that subject will likely fit into the frame. Much like an artist or a photographer, the framer will have to choose what to include in the frame and what to exclude. Furthermore, when a window or portrait frame is drawn around information that delimits the subject matter, attention is then focused on key elements (Hallahan, 1999, p. 207). This analogy would support Entman’s theory that the framing process not only includes inclusion and exclusion but also emphasis. Entman (1993) summarized the framing process with the following:

Framing essentially involves selection and salience. To frame is to select some aspects of a perceived reality and make the more salient in the communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation and/or treatment recommendation for the item described. Frames, then, define problems—determine what a causal agent is doing and the costs and benefits, usually measured in terms of cultural values; diagnose causes—identify the forces creating the problem; make moral judgments—evaluate causal agents and their effects; and suggest remedies—offer and justify treatments for the problem and predict their likely effects. (p. 55)

As Entman stated, both selection and salience play major roles in how an issue is framed. First, we should define the term salience. Fiske and Taylor (1991) define salience as “making a piece of information more noticeable, meaningful, or memorable to audiences” (Entman, 1993, p. 53). As Entman (1993) notes, a high level of salience greatly increases the probability that the receiver will perceive the information, discern meaning and thus process it, and store it into memory. The salience of a frame, in this sense, refers to its accessibility, or the “ease in which instances or associations could be brought to mind” (Tversky & Kahneman, 1986, p. 208).
As previously noted, frames work by triggering an individual’s schema. A schema is a cognitive framework or concept that helps organize and interpret information (Cherry, n.d.). They can be quite helpful as they assist people interpret new information quickly. An example of how a schema works can be illustrated with a young girl and a horse. The girl knows that a horse is large, has four legs and a tail. In turn, when the child first encounters a cow she might initially call it a horse. This exemplifies one of the drawbacks of schema: it allows us “to exclude pertinent information in favor of things that confirm our pre-existing beliefs and ideas” (Cherry, n.d.). However, it should be noted that in our example once the girl is told that the animal is a cow, she will now modify her existing schema for cows (Cherry, n.d.). As Gamson and Modigliani (1987) note, “Individuals bring their own life histories, social interactions, and psychological predispositions to the process of constructing meaning” (p. 2).

Undoubtedly, one’s life experiences and culture play a large part in schemas. Culture in this sense refers to an organized set of beliefs, codes, myths, stereotypes, values, norms, frames, etc. that are shared in the collective memory of a group (Zald, 1996). For example, when Magic Johnson contracted the HIV virus in 1991, many of his peers were worried about playing basketball with him in fear of also contracting the virus. Although that may seem a tad ignorant in 2012, it was the culture in 1991. So when Johnson, a heterosexual man, contracted a disease widely associated with homosexuality, it triggered a schema amongst most people that concluded that Johnson was gay. However, as time passes and we become more educated, cultures change. The majority of Americans in 2012 are far more knowledgeable about the HIV virus than they
were in 1991, and most would assume that if an NBA player announced he had HIV today, the culture would be much different.

One of the most important variables pertaining to framing is word choice. Several studies have concluded that the wording of examples can affect the way an audience interprets an issue. In many cases, if a situation is presented to a person in terms of losses than it is different than if it is presented in terms of gains (Elster, 1990). Kahneman and Tversky (1986) offer perhaps the most widely cited study on the power of framing and the way it not only operates by using selection and salience but also word choice. In their study, they instructed participants to imagine that the United States was preparing for the outbreak of an unusual Asian disease, which is expected to kill 600 people. They are then given the option to select from two alternative programs to combat the problem.

The scientific estimates of the consequences of the programs are as follows: If Program A is adopted, 200 people will be saved. If Program B is adopted, there is a one-third probability that 600 people will be saved and a two-thirds possibility that no people will be saved (Kahneman & Tversky, 1986, p. 260). Kahneman and Tversky concluded that, despite the seemingly identical problems coupled with similar solutions, the manner in which the problem framed the solution was significant (Kahneman & Tversky, 1986, p. 261). When the issue was framed as one in which lives would be saved, respondents were less inclined to take a risk; however, when the issue was framed as one in which lives would be lost, respondents were far more inclined to take a risk (Kahneman & Tversky, 1986, p. 260). Kahneman and Tversky (1986) noted that many respondents “expressed a wish to remain risk averse in the ‘lives saved’ version and risk seeking in the ‘lives lost’ version” (p. 260). This is an excellent example of loss aversion, a function
in which the responses to losses is more extreme then the response to gains. Kahneman and Tversky (1986) believe, “This can be exemplified in the reluctance of most to accept a fair bet on the toss of a coin that suggests that the displeasure of losing a sum of money exceeds the pleasure of winning the same amount” (p. 258).

Kahneman and Tversky’s study gives us an example of an equivalency frame, which often compares gains and losses (Chong & Druckman, 2007). Chong and Duckman suggest framing research focuses on two types of frames: the aforementioned equivalency frames and emphasis frames (Chong & Druckman, 2007, p. 114). As opposed to equivalency frames, emphasis frames offer “qualitatively different yet potentially relevant considerations” which individuals use to make judgments (Chong & Druckman, 2007, p. 114). This is perhaps best exemplified by Nelson, Clawson, and Oxley’s study that examined participants’ reactions to a Ku Klux Klan’s plan to hold a rally. Some participants were exposed to a news story that framed the issue in terms of public safety concerns, while others read a story that framed the issue in regards to freedom of speech (Nelson, Clawson & Oxley, 1997, p. 570). Nelson, Clawson, and Oxley concluded that those who were exposed to the issue in terms of public safety were far less supportive of the rally than those who were exposed to the issue in terms of freedom of speech who felt that the Klan had a right to hold a rally (Nelson, Clawson & Oxley, 1997, p. 576).

Furthermore, when considering frames, one should consider whether a positive or negative frame would be more effective. Wong & McMurray (2002) observe, by just changing a few words—for example, “The less you smoke, the easier it will be to quit” becomes “The more you smoke, the harder it will be to quit” in a health campaign—one
can significantly alter the frame (Van Gorp, 2007, p. 61). One frame offers a remedy that will help it make it easier for one to quit smoking while the other frame offers a remedy that will help make it more difficult to quit smoking. Both frames are essentially saying the same thing but each will have a different effect when triggering an individual’s schema.

It should be noted that not all frames have their desired effect. For example, studies show that negative framing might prompt people to think more about a message (i.e. engage in more effortful processing or message elaboration) and eventually choose to disagree with the views the frame promotes (Hallahan, 1999, p. 208). With that said, whether a frame is positive or negative is far less important than whether the frame is weak or strong.

A frame’s strength increases with its level of persuasion. Weak frames are typically seen as unpersuasive whereas strong frames are more compelling (Chong & Druckman, 2007, p. 103). Research suggests that a frame’s strength increases, for example, when it comes from a credible source (Druckman, 2001), resonates with constant values (Chong, 2000), and does not contradict strongly held prior beliefs (Brewer, 2001; Druckman & Nelson, 2003). Similar to a negative frame, sometimes a weak frame can backfire among certain individuals, leading them to move in a direction unintended by the frame (Tewksbury & Scheufele, 2009, p. 14).

Another variable that should be considered when measuring frames is the amount of exposure one has to a frame. If one is exposed to a frame once a year, it will have far less impact than if one was exposed to the same frame four to five times a day. As Tewksbury and Scheufele (2009) note, “Repetition of frames should have a greater
impact on less knowledgeable individuals who are also more attentive to peripheral cues, whereas more knowledgeable individuals are more likely to engage in systematic information processing by comparing the relative strength in competitive situations” (p. 14).

The Framing Process

Scheufele believes the framing process can be broken down into four stages: frame building, frame setting, individual effects of framing, and journalists as audiences (Scheufele, 199, p. 114-115). Frame building focuses on how media outlets choose specific frames. There are a variety of factors that could potentially influence a journalist’s frame including social norms and values, organizational pressures and constraints, pressures of interest groups, journalistic routines, and ideological or political orientation (Scheufele, 2000, p. 307).

The second stage of the framing process is frame setting. Frame setting examines the ways that media highlight different facts and values to make an issue appear more relevant (Scheufele, 1999, p. 116). As Nelson, Clawson, and Oxley (1997) observe, “Frames influence opinions by stressing values, facts, and other considerations, endowing them with greater apparent relevance to the issue than they might appear to have under an alternative frame” (p. 569).

The third stage of the framing process is individual-level effects of framing. This stage examines how frames of social movements can influence individuals (Scheufele, 2000, p. 307). Snow and Bedford (1988) claim that social movement organizations play the role of “signifying agents” and frame “relevant events and conditions in ways that are
intended to mobilize potential adherents and constituents, to garner bystander support, and demobilize antagonists” (p. 198).

Finally, the last stage of the framing process involves journalists as audiences. Scheufele (1999) reminds us that journalists act as “cognitive misers” and are “equally susceptible to the very frames that they use to describe events and issues (p. 117). For example, Fishman (1980) demonstrated how a frame may initially begin with a small number of local media but could soon be picked up by other journalists—a phenomenon Fishman dubbed a “news wave”.

Entman (1993) also went on to suggest that frames have at least four locations in the communication process. They are the communicator, the text, the receiver, and the culture. He explained with the following:

Communicators make conscious and unconscious framing judgments in deciding what to say, guided by frames that organize their belief systems. The text contains frames, which are manifested by the presence or the absence of certain keywords, stock phrases, stereotyped images, sources of information, and sentences that provide thematically reinforcing clusters of facts or judgments. The frames that guide the receiver’s thinking and conclusion may or may not reflect the frames in the text and the framing intention of the communicator. The culture is the stock of commonly invoked frames; in fact, culture might be defined as the empirically demonstrable set of common frames exhibited in the discourse and thinking of most people in a social grouping (p. 52-53).

When discussing the concept of framing, it is important to distinguish between two types of frames: media frames and individual frames. Entman (1993) defines individual frames as “mentally stored clusters of ideas that guide individuals’ processing of information” (p. 53). McLeod et al. (1987) theorized that individual frames are used as cognitive devices that “operate as non-hierarchical categories that serve as forms of major headings into which any future news content can be filed (p. 10). In other words,
individual frames are more closely associated with one’s schema and allow one to process information and give it meaning and order in their own minds. Conversely, Gamson and Modigliani (1987) define a media frame as “a central organizing idea or story line that provides meaning to an unfolding strip of events” (p. 143). As Gitlin (1980) notes, media frames allow journalists to quickly identify and classify information and “to package it for efficient relay of their audiences” (p. 7). Media frames can be broken down into four major dimensions: the topic of a news item, presentation, cognitive attributes, and affective attributes—all of which play an important role in media framing (Ghanem, 1997, p. 10). Tuchman (1978) notes that the process of news construction begins with reporters and editors searching for frames to help organize the raw happenings they confront and give them order and meaning (Gamson, 1985, p. 617-618.)

Quite often, media use two different approaches to framing their stories: thematic and episodic. The episodic news frame focuses on specific events or cases, whereas the thematic frames places the issue in some general context (Ghanem, 1997, p. 13). Story framing involves selecting key themes or ideas that are the focus of the message and incorporating storytelling or narrative techniques that support that theme (Hallahan, 1999, p. 207). Iyengar (1991) argues, “Media stories typically exemplify either an episodic or thematic frame with important consequences for how viewers make attributions about the causes of, and solutions to, such social problems as poverty and crime (Nelson, Clawson, & Oxley, 1997, p. 568). In this sense, frames serve as plot-points or storylines that give coherence to otherwise discrete pieces of information (Nelson, Clawson, & Oxley, 1997), thereby presenting controversial ideas in manageable ways.
Application to Media

Gamson notes that the process of news construction involves a search by media for frames with which to organize happenings they confront regularly. Conversely, raw happenings are unorganized and must be given order and meaning (Gamson, 1987, p. 617-618). Van Dijk (1985) suspected that the way news is framed in the mass media is a result of social and professional routines of journalists. Similarly, Gamson and Modigliani (1987) believe the formation of frames can be explained by an interaction of journalists’ norms and practices and the influence of interest groups (p. 168). Unarguably, for one to properly analyze framing theory, it is essential to have a solid understanding of how frames are formed.

Framing Research

In its most basic form, frame analysis “identifies the major cognitive schemata, through which people interpret the world” (“Frame Analysis”, n.d.). Entman (1993) expands on that definition by adding that it “illuminates the precise way in which influence over a human consciousness is exerted by the transfer (or communication) of information from one location—such as a speech, utterance, news report, or novel—to that consciousness” (p. 52). Nevertheless, the process of frame analysis has been both heavily modified and retooled since Goffman first introduced the concept in 1974. While Goffman’s work is at least referenced in most recent frame analyses, many of these studies prefer to use an amalgamation of several approaches (D’Angelo, 2002; Fisher, 1997; Hallahan, 1999; Scheufele, 1999). This has led many researchers in the area, most notably Entman, to refer to frame analysis as a “fractured paradigm” (Entman, 1993, p. 51). Entman (1993) observes, “Despite its omnipresence across the social sciences and
humanities, nowhere is there a general statement of framing theory that shows exactly how frames become embedded within and make themselves manifest in a text, or how framing influences thinking” (p. 51). In other words, frame analysis currently lacks a conceptual model of any sort. As Hallahan (1999) notes, “Depending on the circumstances, the meaning of framing varies based on the research question, the level of analysis, or the underlying psychological process of interest” (p. 209). Scheufele (1999) concurs when he states, “The term framing has been used repeatedly to label similar but distinctly different approaches” (p. 103). Tewksbury and Scheufele (2009) have observed “growing signs of inefficiency” and “gridlock in the variety of ways framing, agenda-setting, and priming theory are used by researchers” (p. 18). They also agree that the field would “benefit from greater precision” and “agreement over basic terms and concepts” (Tewksbury & Scheufele, 2009, p. 18). This would lead one to ponder how consistent research can be accomplished without a consistent, clear definition of framing or consistent model for frame analysis?

Before we can discuss the ways in which frame analysis is a “fractured paradigm”, we must first define the term “paradigm.” D’Angelo (2002) believes that a paradigm enables scholars to (a) share definitions of core concepts, (b) agree on the most useful theoretical statement about relationships amongst these concepts, (c) develop relevant hypotheses and research questions, and (d) agree on the research methods and instrumentation with which to most appropriately collect and analyze data (p. 872). Unfortunately, up to this point, scholars have not been able to reach an agreement on many of the core concepts of frame analysis. As Entman (1993) notes, “An understanding of frames helps illuminate many empirical and normative controversies,
most importantly because the concept of framing directs our attention to the details of just how a communicated text exerts its power” (p. 56). Unarguably, to make frame analysis a more effective, a greater shared paradigm is necessary.

Frame analysis, as well as studies that analyze the effects of both agenda-setting and priming are integral to the field of mass communications as a whole. As McQuail (1994) notes, “The entire study of mass communication is based on the premise that the media have significant effects” (p. 327). However, if its effects are not properly measured, the results of its analysis hold very little weight.

Similarly, Scheufele (1999) believes that due to the numerous and varied approaches researchers have employed, the comparability of empirical results is quite limited (p. 118). He therefore suggests, “Future research should integrate previous findings into a consistent model and fill in the missing causal links to develop a complete model of framing” (p. 118). Framing research is also severely hindered by subjectivity. As Van Gorp (2007) notes, “The researcher is bound to make a whole series of decisions in the course of a study, so that subjective interpretation would appear to be virtually inevitable” (p. 73). Once again, one of frame analysis’ most overlooked concepts is that of culture. Reese (2007) has noted difficulties in teaching frame analysis to “those who do not share all of his linguistic and cultural background” (p. 151). As Scheufele and Iyengar (2011) note, “Future research will have to examine much more carefully how variations in schemas across cultures can shape the outcomes of communication” (p. 15). For example, Scheufele and Iyengar (2011) note almost half of all U.S. states have legislation that requires courts to hand down mandatory prison sentences to those who have been convicted of serious offenses on at least three occasions (p. 15). These laws
are routinely framed as “three strikes laws”, which makes reference to the rule of “three strikes and you’re out,” which is a phrase commonly used in baseball (p. 15). Again, researchers note that the frame is far more effective to those familiar with baseball than those who are not. This illuminates one of framing analysis’ greatest weaknesses, it fails to examine an individual’s culture. How does one measure the audience’s culture in regards to frame analysis? Scheufele and Iyengar (2011) call for future research to not only examine text, but also consider “how variations in schemas across culture shape the outcomes of communication” (p. 15).

Inherently, frame analysis faces numerous methodological challenges such as “how to efficiently locate and sift [through] large bodies of textual evidence, how to apply coding measures reliably and how to systematically generate frames” (Halfpenny, 2007). Scheufele (1999) suggests, “Rather than focusing on inputs and outcomes, …future research should address [frame building, frame setting, individual-level framing processes, and feedback from individual-level framing to media framing]” (p. 118).

As previously stated, framing addresses how people make sense of information that they have received (Scheufele & Iyengar, 2011, p. 14). The framing process should not be confused with a journalist attempting to spin his or her story. Unlike a bias, framing is a necessary tool to reduce the complexity of an issue for a mass audience (Tewksbury & Scheufele, 2009, p. 12). News frames, through inclusion, exclusion, and salience, present the public with a “packaged world” (Gamson, 1985, p. 618). This “package” allows the public to understand the issue as a whole. This reiterates Van Gorp’s (2007) belief that an “essential aspect of the framing process on the receiver side
is that the frame provides a context within which the news message can be interpreted” (p. 65).

**Agenda Setting and Priming**

Framing has often been referred to as “second-level agenda-setting.” Agenda-setting describes the “ability [of the news media] to influence the salience of topics on the public agenda” (McCombs, Reynolds, 2002). Agenda-setting and priming demonstrate how mere media attention to an issue or problem can affect public opinion (Iyengar & Kinder, 1987). As opposed to agenda setting and priming, which focuses more on the mere coverage of a problem, framing centers on the effects of media content (Gamson & Modigliani, 1987; Iyengar, 1991; Nelson, Oxley, & Clawson, 1997).

Although framing is often associated with agenda setting, they are actually quite different. It has been argued that agenda setting and priming are based in the same premises, salience-based effects (accessibility effects), while framing is based applicability effects (Tewksbury & Scheufele, 2009, p. 15). According to Tewksbury and Scheufele (2009), framing is “based on the assumption that how an issue is characterized in news reports can have an influence on how it is understood by audiences” (p. 11). Scheufele (2000) explains, “Framing influences how audiences think about issues, not by making aspects of the issue more accessible, but by invoking interpretive schemas that influence the interpretation of incoming information” (p. 309). Matthes (2011) argues, “The basic idea behind framing effects is that by selecting some information and highlighting it to the exclusion of other information, frames can shape the audience’s interpretations of issues” (p. 4). In contrast, the effects of agenda setting and priming are based on the cognitive processing of semantic information (Tewksbury & Scheufele,
Undoubtedly, accessibility is crucial to news reporting, but in lament terms, it is not the cornerstone of framing as it is to agenda setting and priming. Nonetheless, agenda setting and framing share many similarities, and due to that fact, framing is often referred to as second level agenda setting (Entman, 1993; Scheufele, 1999).

McCombs observed that first-level agenda setting determines issue importance, while second level agenda setting draws on repeated discussion of specific issue attributes (McCombs, 1972). Again, it is important to note that this “second level” of agenda setting has more to do with applicability than accessibility. Tewksbury and Scheufele further explain that in contrast to accessibility-based effects, applicability-based effects are often distinguished as relying more on how information is presented, rather than being determined by message prevalence (Tewksbury & Scheufele, 2007). When properly executed, framing selectively activates a particular schema in the minds of the audience as a way of influencing how the presented information is understood and evaluated.

It has been argued that some of the most important framing done by the media has to do with suggesting who is responsible for a problem and who can help provide a remedy for the problem (Ilyenger, 1991). While some would argue that this theory gives far too much power to the media, Severin and Tankard would concur with this theory as they note that frames are often defined by those in power and then picked up and transmitted by the news media (Severin & Tankard, 2000, p. 278).

Undoubtedly, framing is a powerful tool, one in which the media is not shy about utilizing. As Tuchman notes, because people look to the media for information, the media has the power to “circulate and shape knowledge” (Tuchman, 1978, p. 2).
Nonetheless, the current state of framing theory, by several researchers’ admission, provides us with more questions about framing than answers. This would of course justify further research on frame analysis. The next chapter will give a brief background on content analysis as well as the method used in this study.

**Research Questions**

**RQ1:** What common frames have been formed regarding “one-and-done” rule pertaining to the A) NBA, B) NCAA, and C) players?

**RQ2:** Has the “one-and-done” rule been framed as having positive or negative effects on the NBA?

**RQ3:** Has the “one-and-done” rule been framed as having positive or negative effects on the NCAA?

**RQ4:** Has the “one-and-done” rule been framed as having positive or negative effects on the players?
Chapter 3: Method

Content Analysis Background

Content analysis in its broadest sense is defined as “any research technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specified characteristics within text” (Stone, Dunphy, Smith & Ogilvie, 1966, p. 5). Neuendorf (2002) believes, “Content analysis is a summarizing, quantitative analysis of messages that relies on the scientific method ... and is not limited as to the types of variables that may be measured or the context in which the messages are created or presented” (p. 2). Neuendorf’s concept of content analysis, however, has been criticized for its lack of integration of qualitative techniques. Yet she steadfastly maintains that a qualitative analysis of texts would be more appropriately regarded as rhetorical analysis, narrative analysis, or discourse analysis but acknowledges, “With only minor adjustment, many (qualitative techniques) are appropriate for use in content analysis as well” (p. 5). In turn, similar to many other researchers, Neuendorf advocates using an “integrated” model for future research.

Despite its deficiencies, the popularity of content analyses has recently soared. Studies such as Riffe and Freitag (1997) and Yale and Gilly (1988) report, “In the field of mass communication research, content analysis has been the fastest-growing technique over the past 20 years or so” (Neuendorf, p. 1). Shoemaker and Reese (1996) have expanded on the concept of content analyses by splitting it into two distinctive
categories—the behaviourist tradition and the humanist tradition. The behaviourist approach is “primarily concerned with the effects that content produces” and “looks forwards from media content to try to identify future effects” while the humanist approach “looks backward from media content to try to identify what it says about society and the culture producing it” (Mcnamara, 2005, p. 3). Shoemaker and Reese (1996) hope this “dual view of the media” could help explain whether the “mass media create public opinion, attitudes and perceptions or reflect existing attitudes, perceptions, and culture” (Mcnamara, 2005, p. 3).

While many researchers’ opinions differ pertaining to the methodology behind content analysis, the process as a whole has many benefits. First, as Macnamara (2005) notes, it is a “non-intrusive research method that allows examination of a wide range of data over an extensive period to identify popular discourses and their likely meaning” (p. 6). He also goes on to note that content analysis can be conducted much more frequently than typical “audience research” such as large-scale surveys (Macnamara, 2005, p. 6).

Berelson (1952) suggests five main purposes of content analysis as follows: (1) To describe substance characteristics of message content; (2) To describe form characteristics of message content; (3) To make inferences to producers of content; (4) To make inferences to audiences of content; and (5) To predict the effects of content on audiences (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 52). While this study will aim foremost to describe the substance characteristics of message content and to describe how these messages are formed, the researcher hopes that the results of this study could ultimately be used to make inferences about either the messages’ producers or audiences, as well as be used to predict the effect on future audiences.
Content analysis is commonly used to determine the presence of certain words, concepts, or themes within text. This content analysis will use a quantitative study to make inferences about the messages within the text, the writer(s), the audience, as well as the culture of both the messages’ senders and receivers (“An Introduction”, n.d.). The text will first be coded and then entered into Microsoft Excel. The coded information will then be placed into a variety of categories through selective reduction. It should be noted that this study will certainly not be limited to counting the frequency of terms relevant to the “one-and-done” rule, but will instead attempt to identify frames, themes, and concepts pertaining to the media’s coverage of the aforementioned rule by sorting the existing coded information and drawing conclusions from various charts and graphs.

This study will examine the existing media coverage of the controversial “one-and-done” rule. It seeks to not only identify frames present in the media’s coverage of the rule, but also aims to gain a greater understanding of how these frames are formed. Due to the rule’s undeniable impact on the NBA, and consequently its massive effect on the NCAA as well as college players and potential NBA prospects, it is of great importance to evaluate the messages that all of these parties have conveyed through the media. Both the NCAA and the NBA are multi-million dollar corporations that not only have a major influence on the media, but also quite a large economic stake that has been influenced by this rule. This study does not intend to form its own opinion pertaining to the “one-and-done” rule, but solely to reflect and analyze the views the media has projected. The study will also examine the way the media uses past players’ performances, many of which the public is already familiar with, to frame the “one-and-
done” rule and the impact the rule has had on not only the sport, but also the respective associations.

This study will utilize a constant comparative technique to analyze the data. Birks and Mills (2011) describe part of the process as “the constant comparison of incident to incident, incident to codes, codes to codes, codes to categories, and categories to categories” (p. 11). This is an inductive process that means the researcher will examine the data critically and draw meaning from the data. Glaser (1978) explains the steps of the analysis as follows:

(a) Begin collecting data; (b) Look for key issues, recurrent events, or activities in the data that become categories for focus; (c) Collect data that provide many incidents of the categories of focus with an eye to seeing the diversity of the dimensions under the categories; (d) Write about the categories that you are exploring, attempting to describe and account for all of the incident you have in your data while continually searching for new incidents; (e) Work with the data and emerging model to discover basic social processes and relationships; (f) Engage in sampling, coding, and writing as the analysis focuses on the core categories. (p. 68).

This study will utilize an open coding technique. Strauss and Corbin (1990) describe it as “the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing, and categorizing data” (p. 61). This study aims not only to supply a strong theoretical understanding of the “one-and-done” phenomenon, but also to provide insights that would help guide future research of the topic.

**Content Analysis Procedure**

Content analysis is commonly used to determine the presence of certain words, concepts, or themes within text. This content analysis used a quantitative approach to make inferences about the messages within the text, the writer(s), the audience, as well as the culture of both the messages’ senders and receivers (“An Introduction”, n.d.). The
text was first coded and then thoroughly analyzed and placed into a variety of categories through selective reduction. It should be noted that this study was not limited to counting the frequency of terms relevant to the “one-and-done” rule, but instead attempted to identify manifest content including frames, themes, and concepts pertaining to the media’s coverage of the aforementioned rule.

This study employed a content analysis of electronic sources’ (daily newspapers, websites, and blogs) coverage of the controversial “one-and-done” rule first introduced in 2006. News stories from the last six years (2006-2012) were collected and evaluated. Several keywords were used while searching individual sites including “nba one-and-done rule,” “nba draft requirements,” and “nba draft eligibility.” Two trained coders analyzed a random sub-sample of 25 articles and intercoder reliability was assessed at 89.5% using Holsti’s reliability formula which means the reliability of the study is “good” (Stacks, 2011).

Through use of search engines from ESPN.com, CBSSports.com, and HoopsWorld.com, and Lexis Nexis, articles relating to the “one-and-done rule” were collected and coded. ESPN, the self-proclaimed “Worldwide Leader in Sports”, is an essential source to include in any sports-related study. They are by far the largest, most notable, and most popular name in sports media. In 2011, ESPN.com surpassed Yahoo! Sports as the most popular U.S. sports website, registering over 52 million unique users in the United States (Manfred, 2011). ESPN.com covers a variety of sports and is updated around the clock, 24 hours a day, 7 days a week. ESPN.com also employs writers, many specific to one sport, to write features and opinion pieces about current sports events. In the case of basketball, respected analysts such as Dick Vitale and Jay Bilas routinely
contribute articles regarding college basketball, while analysts such as Chris Broussard and John Hollinger cover the NBA. Unquestionably, ESPN’s articles are directed for a national audience and have a major influence on attitudes regarding topics in sports.

Similar to ESPN.com, CBSSports.com also caters to a national audience. CBSSports.com covers a variety of sports (including NBA basketball), the site is perhaps best known for its coverage of collegiate sports, most likely due to the relationship between the NCAA and CBS, the longtime home of the annual NCAA basketball tournament. Although CBSSports.com does not publish any direct readership figures relating solely to their sports site, its site claims that CBS Interactive is “the best online content network for information and entertainment” and “200 million people visit its properties each month” (“About CBSSports.com”, n.d.). Due to the site’s overwhelming popularity amongst collegiate basketball fans, its content must be analyzed in any study concerning media and the NCAA.

This study will also analyze articles taken from HoopsWorld.com, a website dedicated to NBA basketball. Not only does HoopsWorld offer a variety of original content regarding professional basketball, but it also serves as an aggregate of basketball information. In other words, the site collects and links to articles from a variety of local newspapers such as the Philadelphia Inquirer or the Sacramento Bee. Hoopsworld doesn’t explicitly state any figures in regard to its readership, but the site has more than 2,800 fans on its Facebook page and more than 17,000 followers on its Twitter page (“Hoopsworld”, n.d.). This is important to the study because unlike ESPN and CBS Sportsline, it contains articles that weren’t necessarily written for a national audience.
Lastly, this study used LexisNexis, a computer-assisted research service. LexisNexis draws from a variety of sources and presents one large database for researchers to draw from. In the case of this study, LexisNexis provided links to materials from national sources such as *USA Today* and *Sporting News*, as well as from several citywide sources such as the *New York Times*, *Washington Times*, and *New York Daily News* amongst others.

This study examined the content of all three of these sites from 2006 (the year the “one-and-done” rule was first instituted) through July 2012. The coding process for this study will be broken down as follows: The coder made note of the word count. An article with less than 300 words was classified as “short,” an article with between 301 words and 600 words was classified as “medium,” and an article with 601 words or more was classified as “long.” Next, the researcher noted the type of article being examined. Articles were classified as feature articles, news articles, blogs, or “other.” The coder then noted which organizations are present in the article. The code sheet lists the NBA (National Basketball Association), the NCAA (National Collegiate Athletic Association), NBPA (National Basketball Players Association), NBDL (National Basketball Developmental League) and “other” (see Appendix A).

The next section of the coding sheet analyzed the manifest content of each article including themes, texts, messages, and the overall content of the article. The coder then noted whether or not the article suggested the “one-and-done” rule has been successful for the NBA, and whether or not the article suggested the “one-and-done” rule has been successful for the NCAA.
The next topic to be addressed is player presence. Several players have been closely associated with the “one-and-done” rule due to their chosen career path and its relevance to the rule. The coder noted the presence of several players including Kobe Bryant, LeBron James, Dwight Howard, Kevin Garnett, Kwame Brown, Derrick Rose, and O.J. Mayo. The coder then noted whether the aforementioned players’ performance was used to justify the article’s frame and simply noted “yes” or “no”. Next, the coder observed whether the frames in the article were mostly positive, negative, neutral, both (positive and negative), or whether the article made no reference to past players at all.

Lastly, the coder examined whether the article supports the “one-and-done” rule. The coder noted whether the “one-and-done” rule should continue in its current form by selecting either “yes”, “no”, or “neutral”. If the article suggested a change to the rule, there was a write-in area for the researcher to note any such suggestions.

The next chapter will examine the results of the study as well as answer the aforementioned research questions. It will also provide raw data that could be used to draw conclusions not addressed in this study.
Chapter 4: Results

Results By Year

This paper seeks to find what frames the media used pertaining to the NBA’s “one-and-done” rule. This study examined 163 articles pertaining to the NBA’s “one-and-done” rule. Of those articles, three articles were from 2006, four articles were from 2007, 20 articles from 2008, 27 articles were from 2009, 31 articles were from 2010, 42 articles were from 2011, and 36 articles were from 2012 (see Table 1).

Table 1: Articles Analyzed in Study By Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Articles by Year</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Study Represented by Year</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>19.0%</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organization Presence

The National Basketball Association (NBA) was found present in a majority of the articles (85%) (see Table 2). The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) was also found present in a majority of the articles (67%). The National Basketball Players’ Association (NBPA) was found in 26% of the articles and the National Basketball Developmental League was found in 10% of the articles. Other organizations were found in 3% of the articles.
Table 2: Percentage of Articles Organization was Present In

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization was Present In</th>
<th>NBA</th>
<th>NCAA</th>
<th>NBPA</th>
<th>NBDL</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Articles</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frames Present in Articles Toward Rule’s Impact on Organizations

From 2006 to 2012, the majority of the articles each year were found to have a neutral frame (64%) of the rule’s impact on the NBA (see Figure 1). The highest percentage of neutral articles was from 2010 (78%). The lowest percentage of neutral articles was from 2011 (52%). A positive frame of the rule’s impact on the NBA was found in 25% of the articles. The highest percentage of positive articles was from 2006 (33%) followed by 2011 (31%). The lowest percentage of positive articles was from 2010 (10%). A negative frame of the rule’s impact on the NBA can be found in 12% of the articles. The highest percentage of negative articles can be found in 2011 (17%) followed by 2009 (15%). The lowest percentage of negative articles can be found in 2006 (0%) and 2007 (0%).
Of the 163 articles, the majority of the articles (64%) found a neutral frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the NBA (see Figure 2). A positive frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the NBA was found in 24% of the articles and a negative frame of the rule was found in 12% of the articles.

In 2006 (67%), 2007 (75%), 2009 (52%) and 2011 (50%), the majority of the articles were found to have a neutral frame (42%) of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on
the NCAA (see Figure 3). The highest percentage of neutral articles was from 2010 (75%) followed by 2006 (67%), and then 2011 (50%). The lowest percentage of neutral articles was from 2010 (29%). A negative frame of the “one-and-done” rule can be found in 63 articles. In 2008 (45%), 2010 (55%), and 2012 (42%), the majority of the articles were found to have a negative frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the NCAA. The lowest percentage of negative articles was from 2006 (0%), followed by 2007 (25%), and then 2009 (26%). A positive frame of the rule’s impact on the NBA can be found in 31 articles. The highest percentage of positive articles was from 2006 (33%) followed by 2009 (22%) and 2012 (8 of 36, 22%). The lowest percentage of positive articles was from 2007 (0%) followed by 2010 (16%).

Figure 3: Frames Present in Articles Toward Rule’s Impact on NCAA

Of the 163 articles, the majority of the articles (42%) found a neutral frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the NCAA (see Figure 4). A positive frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the NBA was found in 19% of the articles and a negative frame of the rule was found in 39% of the articles.
In 2006 (67%), 2008 (50%), 2009 (52%), 2010 (45%) and 2011 (50%), the majority of the articles were found to have a neutral frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the players (see Figure 5). In 2007, 50% of the articles were found to have both a neutral frame and a positive frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the players and in 2010, 45% of the articles were found to have both a neutral frame and a negative frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the players. The highest percentage of neutral articles was from 2006 (67%) followed by 2009 (52%). The lowest percentage of neutral articles was from 2012 (33%) followed by 2010 (45%).

A negative frame toward the “one-and-done” rule can be found in 66 articles. In 2012 (15 of 36, 42%), the majority of the articles were found to have a negative frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the players. The lowest percentage of negative articles was from both 2006 (0 of 3, 0%) and 2007 (0 of 4, 0%) followed by 2008 (8 of 20, 40). A positive frame of the rule’s impact on the NBA can be found in 14.1% of the articles. The highest percentage of positive articles (other than the aforementioned 2007)
was from 2006 (33%), followed by 2012 (25%). The lowest percentage of positive articles was from 2009 (7%).

Of the 163 articles, the majority of the articles (45%) found a neutral frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the players (see Figure 6). A negative frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the players was found in 41% of the articles and a positive frame of the rule was found in 39% of the articles.

**Figure 5: Frames Present in Articles Toward Rule’s Impact on Players**

**Figure 6: Frames Present in Articles Toward Rule's Impact on Players**
The Future of the “One-and-Done” Rule

The majority of the articles (54%) do not suggest the rule should continue as written (see Figure 7). Many articles (28%) make no suggestions regarding changing the “one-and-done” rule. Other articles (18%) suggest the rule should continue as currently written.

Figure 7: Percentage of Articles that Suggest the Rule Should Continue as Currently Written

The majority of the articles did not suggest a change to the “one-and-done” rule (39%) (see Figure 8). Many articles (23%) suggested the NBA adopt a rule similar to Major League Baseball’s eligibility rule. Others suggested the NBA raise its age limit to 20 years old (18%). A few articles (2%) suggested the NBA assemble a draft panel that decides which players are eligible for the NBA, while less (1%) suggested paying collegiate and Developmental League players.
Figure 8: Suggestions to Change the “One-and-done” Rule

Results Pertaining to Research Questions

After conducting this content analysis, a variety of frames were found regarding the “one-and-done” rule. This study was also able to draw conclusions in regard to the impact the “one-and-done” rule has had on the NBA, NCAA, and the players.

RQ1: What common frames have been formed regarding “one-and-done” rule pertaining to the A) NBA, B) NCAA, and C) players?

A variety of frames have been identified regarding the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the NBA. The media has consistently used players such as Kwame Brown and Korleone Young to justify frames that suggest NBA teams have wasted their valuable draft picks on unproven players. They have framed the “one-and-done” rule as the solution to this perceived problem and therefore believe the rule has had a positive impact on the NBA. However, not all frames pertaining to rule’s impact in the NBA have been positive. The media has consistently used players such as LeBron James, Kobe Bryant, Dwight Howard, and Kevin Garnett to justify frames that suggest the NBA has benefitted
greatly from drafting players directly from high school and question why the rule was ever implemented.

A variety of frames have been identified regarding the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the NCAA. The media has consistently used players such as Derrick Rose and O.J. Mayo to justify frames that suggest “one-and-done” players make a mockery of the student athlete. They suggest that the “one-and-done” rule forces players to go to college that would not otherwise go if it was not for the rule, and requiring these players to go to college creates an environment that is ripe for NCAA violations. They have framed the “one-and-done” rule as the cause of many of the NCAA’s problems and therefore believe the rule has had a negative impact on the NBA. However, not all frames pertaining to rule’s impact in the NCAA have been negative. The media has consistently used players such as LeBron James, Kobe Bryant, Dwight Howard, and Kevin Garnett to justify frames that suggest the NCAA was negatively impacted by many of the greatest high school players of the last 20 years’ decision to forgo college and enter the NBA Draft directly out of high school. They suggest that forcing a player to play at least one season of college basketball ultimately benefits the NCAA because it brings top-tier talent such as Derrick Rose and Kevin Durant to the NCAA and increases its profitability.

A variety of frames have been identified regarding the “one-and-done” rule’s impact on the players. The media has consistently used players such as Kwame Brown and Korleone Young to justify frames that high school players lack the maturity to make a decision with such severe consequences. If the player decides to enter the NBA Draft directly from high school, he loses all of his NCAA eligibility and will never be allowed to play college basketball. Similarly, if he is drafted by an NBA team and is waived by
that team shortly after, his basketball career could effectively be over at 20 or 21 years of age. They have framed the “one-and-done” rule as the solution to this perceived problem and therefore suggest the rule has had a positive impact on the players. However, not all frames pertaining to rule’s impact on the players have been positive. The media has suggested that both the NBA and NCAA have implemented the “one-and-done” rule to benefit their respective organizations at the players’ expense. They have cited players such as Kobe Bryant and LeBron James as opportunities lost for the NCAA in both financial and marketing aspects, while noting that “one-and-done” players such as Kevin Durant and John Wall helped bring both a great amount of money and attention to their respective universities. If not for the “one-and-done” rule, Durant and Wall would have entered the draft directly after high school, signed contracts with multi-million dollar salaries, and owned the rights to their own images and likenesses.

**RQ2:** Has the “one-and-done” rule been framed as having a positive or negative impact on the NBA?

This study has found that the majority of articles (64%) have a neutral frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s effect on the NBA. However, 24% of the articles analyzed in this study have a positive frame of the rule’s effect on the NBA as opposed to just 12% of the articles that had a negative frame of the rule’s effect on the NBA. From 2006 to 2012, only in one year (2010) were more articles found to have a negative frame of the rule’s effect on the NBA than positive with just four negative articles compared to three. In every other year analyzed, at least 65% of the articles in which a frame was present were found to be positive. The “one-and-done” rule has been presented through the media as having a positive effect on the National Basketball Association.
**RQ3:** Has the “one-and-done” rule been framed as having positive or negative effects on the NCAA?

This study found that the majority of articles (42%) had a neutral frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s effect on the NCAA. However, 39% of the articles analyzed in this study have a negative frame of the rule’s effect on the NCAA, which is more than double the amount of articles that had a negative frame of the rule’s effect on the NCAA (19%). From 2006 to 2012, only in one year (2006) were more articles found to have a positive frame of the rule’s effect on the NCAA than negative with just one article compared to zero. Despite the fact that the majority of the total articles were found to have a neutral frame of the rule’s effect on the NCAA, in three individual years, more articles were found to have a negative frame of the rule’s effect on the NCAA than neutral. In 2008, seven articles had a negative frame of the rule’s impact in comparison to seven neutral articles; In 2010, 17 articles had a negative frame in comparison to nine neutral articles; And in 2012, 15 articles had a negative frame in comparison to 13 neutral frames. The “one-and-done” rule has been presented through the media as having a negative effect on the NCAA.

**RQ4:** Has the “one-and-done” rule been framed as having positive or negative effects on the players?

This study found that the majority of articles (45%) have a neutral frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s effect on the players. However, 41% of the articles analyzed in this study have a negative frame of the rule’s effect on the players, which nearly tripled the amount of articles that had a negative frame of the rule’s effect on the players (14%).
From 2006 to 2012, only in two years were more articles found to have a positive frame of the rule’s effect on the players than negative with just one article compared to zero in 2006, and two articles compared to zero in 2007. In each individual year from 2008 to 2011, articles that had a negative frame of the “one-and-done” rule’s effect on the players were at least 400% more prevalent than articles that had were positive. The “one-and-done” rule has been presented through the media as having a negative effect on the players.
Chapter 5: Discussion

The Impact of Frames Pertaining to the “One-and-done” Rule

Undoubtedly, the “one-and-done” rule has had an immense impact on all levels of basketball—high school, collegiate, and professional (Medcalf, 2012; Robertson, 2007). Likewise, public opinion on the subject differs greatly as well. It is quite possible that this is a product of how the media has framed this issue.

From 2006 to 2012, as media coverage of the “one-and-done” rule has increased, the media has had an increasingly more positive tone pertaining to the rule’s impact on the NBA (see Figure 1). This trend is perhaps unsurprising due to the fact that the “one-and-done” rule was implemented by the NBA, and NBA Commissioner David Stern has gone on the record stating, “For our business purposes, the longer we can look at young men playing against first-rate competition, that’s a good thing” (Pollakoff, 2012). Many of the articles that had a positive frame of the rule’s impact on the NBA acknowledged that NBA teams benefit from having an additional year to assess potential players.

The media has repeatedly promoted the idea that the “one-and-done” rule would help lower the amount of draft “busts”, players that never reach their expected potential. This can be perhaps best exemplified in the case of Kwame Brown, the first overall pick in the NBA’s 2001 Draft who despite career earnings over $58 million dollars, is regarded by many as the “biggest bust in NBA history” (Dougherty, 2012). Of the 163 articles analyzed in this study, zero referenced Brown in a solely positive tone. The
connection between Brown’s career, which started in 2001, and the “one-and-done” rule, which began in 2006, is so prevalent that many in the media have coined the rule the “Kwame Brown rule” (Ziller, 2012). In other words, the media advocates the idea that the rule’s greatest benefit to NBA basketball is that it would stop teams from using valuable draft picks on players such as Brown.

The media use this frame so often that it extends far beyond just Kwame Brown. Korleone Young, the 40th pick in the 1998 NBA Draft, is often cited as a bust as well. After his senior year of high school, Young decided to declare for the NBA, making him ineligible to play in the NCAA. He played in just three games with the Detroit Pistons before being waived and never played in the NBA again. Young’s career differs from Brown’s in one very important aspect—Young never made a significant amount of money while playing. This has led some in the media to advocate the idea that the “one-and-done” rule could potentially benefit high school players deciding between college and the NBA. Essentially, some would argue that this rule saves these “kids” from their own poor decisions by not permitting them to make a decision. If they have to go to college, then they can’t throw their lives away, some would argue. It should be noted that this is not a dominant frame. Of the articles examined, just 14% articles suggested the rule was beneficial to the players compared to the 40% of articles that suggested otherwise. Furthermore, NBA Commissioner David Stern himself has shot down the idea that the rule was put into place to benefit potential preps-to-pros players when he stated, “Our rules are not social programs. We don’t think it’s appropriate for us to lecture kids as to whether they should or shouldn’t go to school” (Pollakoff, 2012).
Although many players’ circumstances differ from both Brown’s and Young’s, the media has labeled various other preps-to-pros as problematic for the league and has presented the “one-and-done” rule as the solution. Players such as Eddy Curry, Lenny Cooke, and Leon Smith are often cited as players whose careers fizzled out far too early and would have benefitted from playing college basketball.

Others in the media have questioned why the rule was ever introduced. Admittedly, players such as Kwame Brown and Korleone Young have been by no means successful, but how prevalent are these cases? In 2009, ESPN ran a study that systematically analyzed the value of the NBA draft to answer the following question: Do high school prospects outperform four-year college draftees or international players? Their study found “the preps-to-pros cohort far exceeded the production of more-seasoned players drafted in the same range.” It was concluded that four-year collegiate players that go onto successful NBA careers such as Tim Duncan are the exception, not the rule (Hoberstroh, 2011). In simpler terms, a higher percentage of players that enter the NBA draft directly out of high school statistically fare better than those players who play four years of college basketball.

As Tom Hoberstroh notes, “Just look at the league’s billboards, TV commercials and Olympic squads that help globalize the league. While Stern blocked 18-year-olds from earning a living in the NBA, he simultaneously marketed his product by propping up players who chose that now-banned path” (Hoberstroh, 2011). While the NBA may seemingly be hesitant to acknowledge that fact, the media has not been. Many of the preps-to-pros present throughout this study are overwhelmingly presented in a positive light in the articles examined. Frames of articles that referenced Kobe Bryant were found
to be 44% positive in comparison to 10% negative. Frames of articles that referenced LeBron James were found to be 46% positive in comparison to 8% negative. Frames that referenced Kevin Garnett were found to be 33% positive in comparison to 14% negative, and frames that referenced Dwight Howard were found to be 57% positive in comparison to 6% negative.

The fact that negative frames exist pertaining to overwhelmingly successful players such as James and Bryant may be surprising to some. Many of the existing negative frames that reference these players acknowledge that they are great players, but imply they would have been better players if they played at least some college basketball. While no exact science exists that could tell us how college would’ve benefitted these players, ESPN’s 2011 study looked at “one-and-done” players such as Kevin Durant and Derrick Rose, players that would have most likely jumped from high school to the NBA had the “one-and-done” rule not existed. Based on Estimated Wins Average (EWA), the average “would-be-prep-to-pro” (i.e. Rose and Durant) posted a 4.9 EWA in his rookie season. Of 13 “would-be-preps-to-pros”, the nine who logged a second season in the NBA posted an average EWA of 6.8 (Hoberstroh, 2011). In comparison, the 18 lottery picks from high school (which includes Kwame Brown) averaged just a 2.3 EWA in their rookie campaigns, but that jumped to a 5.1 EWA in their second season (again compared to the “would-be-preps-to-pros” 4.8 EWA in their rookie seasons. And by the high school lottery picks’ third year, they had a 7.2 EWA as opposed to the “one-and-done” players’ 6.8 EWA (Hoberstroh, 2011). Hoberstroh concluded, “The difference is negligible; the “one-and-dones” haven’t significantly fared any better than the high schoolers, on average, through their first two years in the league” (Hoberstroh, 2011).
While the media may frame the “one-and-done” rule as beneficial to the NBA, they have framed the rule quite differently pertaining to the NCAA. This is not particularly surprising consider the NCAA President Mark Emmert has vocally opposed the rule. “I happen to dislike the one-and-done rule enormously and wish it didn’t exist,” Emmert said. “I think it forces young men to go to college that have little or no interest in going to college. It makes a travesty of the whole notion of student as an athlete” (Kerkhoff, 2012). Emmert’s statement reflects a popular frame regarding the “one-and-done” rule’s effect on the NCAA—it makes a mockery of the student athlete. Players such as Derrick Rose and O.J. Mayo, who given the option both would have most likely skipped college in favor of the NBA, are often cited as the biggest problem with the “one-and-done” rule. During his time at USC, Mayo received a variety of improper benefits from a sports management agency; before enrolling at University of Memphis, Rose, who had struggled to meet the NCAA’s minimum academic requirement, allegedly had another student take his SATs for him. Although NCAA violations have existed long before the “one-and-done” rule, the media often cites the rule as a catalyst for such behaviors.

Of the articles that referenced O.J. Mayo, 54% of the articles referred to him negatively while only 17% of the article referenced him positively. Of the articles that referenced Derrick Rose, 31% of the articles framed him in a negative tone while only 22% referred to him in positive tone. Many of the articles that refer to Rose and Mayo in a positive frame do so in the same manner that a small percentage referred to LeBron James and Kobe Bryant negatively; they advocate the idea that Rose and Mayo became better players in college. Nonetheless, the fact that Derrick Rose is widely referred to
with negative frames may surprise many. Rose was named the NBA MVP in the 2010-2011 season, becoming the youngest player to ever win the award. Some would assume that Rose would be viewed as a “one-and-done” success story; however, his legacy in the NBA and the NCAA will most likely differ greatly. Although Rose led his Memphis team to the NCAA Championship game as a freshman, his team’s wins were all eventually vacated when the NCAA sanctions came down. Similarly, when Mayo’s transgressions were discovered, his USC team’s wins were also all vacated.

The fact that these “one-and-done” players, many of which are well aware that millions of dollars lie only one year away, accept improper benefits should surprise no one. As much as the NCAA likes to repeat its rhetoric about amateurism and the integrity of the “student/athlete”, the NCAA operates like a business. While strictly forbidding students from making any money from their respective sport, the NCAA has no qualms about profiting off students. In 2009, Ed O’Bannon, a former basketball player at UCLA, sued the NCAA for using his likeness in a video game. After seeing a friend’s child play a video game that featured O’Bannon’s 1995 UCLA team, he took action. “It didn’t have my name, but it had my number, left-handed, it looked like me. It was everything but the name” (Zirin, 2010).

Although the NCAA prefers to keep many of their finances private, just a glance at some of the NCAA’s figures should give one an idea about the amount of money the NCAA makes from college basketball. Despite its status as a nonprofit organization, there is a plethora of NCAA executives and officials pulling in quite large salaries. Mark Emmert, head of the NCAA, has a base salary of $620,000 (Emch, 2011). University of Kentucky coach John Calipari earns over $4.5 million a year plus bonuses (Katz, 2011).
What about Anthony Davis, NCAA champion and 2012 Naismith Player of the Year? Despite becoming the face of the best collegiate basketball team in the country, he wasn’t paid a dime; and despite the fact that the NCAA will market Davis’ Kentucky team for years after he has left the University, he will never be compensated. The NCAA doesn’t deny that profits are being made from college basketball—its current March Madness contract with CBS and Turner Broadcasting nets $10.8 billion over 14 years; however, Emmert explains that the money derived from college basketball helps pay for less lucrative sports (Gavett, 2012). And although the NCAA’s licensed business value has been estimated at $4 billion, it relishes its tax-exempt status as an amateur sports organization.

The fact that the NCAA makes so much money off these players has ignited a discussion regarding whether collegiate athletes should be paid. Those who oppose the NBA’s “one-and-done” rule under the premise that it “forces” players to play a “free” season for the NBA vehemently argue against suggestions that the NBA should either raise its age limit to two years or adopt a eligibility model similar to Major League Baseball which requires players to either stay in college for three years or immediately join the professional ranks citing that these options would further exploit “student/athletes.” Many have posed the question “Is the university there to help benefit the students or are the students there to benefit the university?” If a student who is not being compensated for his services wants to leave the university after his freshman year, should a rule bind him to staying one or two more years? If an aspiring graphic design student was offered a million dollar salary to work for a big, global business after his freshman year of college, would the university stop him from pursuing his dream? If so,
it would be unprecedented. Is he or she any less of a student than a college basketball player? Would the graphic designer be allowed to leave and the basketball player be forced to stay simply because the university and the NCAA can make a profit off the basketball player?

Whether or not college athletes should be paid has been a hot button topic for some time now and quite frankly would be worthy of a research paper of its own. This study will not attempt to tackle this subject, but it must acknowledge that the topic will have to be addressed at some point and its ramifications will most likely have a substantial impact on the landscape of the “one-and-done” rule.

In addition to frames that suggest the “one-and-done” rule has compromised the “student/athlete,” others suggest that the rule has had a negative effect on the fan’s perspective of college basketball. Prior the mid-90s, most college basketball players stayed in school until their junior and senior years. For instance, the 1990/91 Duke Blue Devils featured future NBA players such as freshman Grant Hill, sophomore Bobby Hurley, and junior Christian Laettner and won the NCAA championship. A year later, the 1991/92 Duke Blue Devils returned Hill, Hurley, and Laettner and won another NCAA Championship, becoming the first repeating team since UCLA’s seven-year championship run from 1967 to 1973. Although they did not win a championship the next year, Hurley returned for his senior year and Hill returned for his junior year. In contrast, the 2011/12 Kentucky Wildcats featured sophomores Doron Lamb and Terrence Jones, as well as freshmen Michael Kidd-Gilchrist, Anthony Davis and Marquis Teague. After winning the NCAA Championship, all five of the aforementioned players declared
for the NBA Draft. This will have a profound effect on the 2012/13 Kentucky team which is expected to return just one non-red shirt junior and zero non-red shirt seniors.

Although very few teams send this many players to the NBA, it exemplifies a perceived problem with the “one-and-done” rule. College basketball traditionalists bemoan the wholesale year-to-year roster changes that have become far more commonplace in college basketball than there were 20 years ago. They complain that the “one-and-done” rule makes recruiting much more difficult as coaches have no idea how long the players they are recruiting will stay. Coaches such as Arizona’s Lute Olson and Maryland’s Gary Williams have gone as far as to say that they won’t recruit “one-and-done” players (“Olson,” 2011; Starddard, 2011). Undoubtedly, the effect of “one-and-done” recruiting on college basketball rosters has been used to frame the impact of the rule on the NCAA in a negative light. The media has adapted a similar perspective as the aforementioned traditionalists yearning for the “good ol’ days” of college basketball when players stayed in school for four years. Again, the media has fairly or unfairly blamed the “one-and-done” rule for damaging the game of college basketball, and has offered a variety of solutions to help rectify the problem.

No matter whether you’re a fan of NBA or NCAA basketball, many are split as to whether or not the “one-and-done” rule has had a positive effect on their game. While some NBA fans embrace the rule and cite the fact that teams will no longer waste valuable draft picks on unproven players, other NBA fans bemoan the fact that they can no longer select the “best player available” but instead must choose the “best eligible player available. For example, the Toronto Raptors selected Andrea Bargnani with the first overall pick in the 2006 NBA Draft. In the six seasons since, the Raptors have made
the playoffs twice and have never won a playoff series. However, if the Raptors were
allowed to pick a high school player, one could argue that they would have selected
Kevin Durant with the first overall pick. Durant, who was eventually selected the next
year, has led his Oklahoma City Thunder team to three playoff experiences, culminating
in making it to the NBA Finals in 2012. Perhaps if the Raptors were allowed to select
Durant, the franchise would have went in a much different direction.

Many fans of college basketball often argue that the “one-and-done” rule makes a
mockery of the “student/athlete” and presents several challenges pertaining to recruiting;
however, other college basketball fans argue that the NCAA benefits from getting players
such as Kevin Durant or Derrick Rose to play even one year. Their basic argument is one
year is better than none. Imagine if LeBron James, a Cleveland native, played a season
for Ohio State or Kobe Bryant played a season at Duke? James might not win your
university four championships, but one would have to think he has a good chance at
winning one!

Even those advocating for the players seem to be split. Many argue that it’s
unfair to “force” a player to go to school and make money for everyone but himself.
They would argue that in a capitalist society, a player should have the rights to pursue his
dream and seek fair market value for his abilities. On the other side, there are those that
think that declaring for the NBA Draft is simply too much of an “adult decision” for an
18-year-old kid to make and would cite Korleone Young’s decision as a reflection of that.
They would say that the “one-and-done” rule saves players from their own bad decisions.
They would take it further by saying that these players, many of whom have never played
against elite competition, would benefit from playing college basketball. Some of the
greatest coaches in the world coach in the collegiate ranks, and they would argue that it’s far more beneficial for an 18-year-old kid to play 25 to 30 minutes a night in college rather than sit on the bench or play 4 to 6 minutes a night in the NBA. However, many of these frames have been criticized for their racist overtones. Are the players labeled immature because they’re mainly black? White athletes that wish to pursue careers in golf or tennis at a young age are rarely if ever lectured about the “risks” of pursuing their dreams. Why are athletes from largely white sports not labeled too immature to make a decision about their futures and while black athletes are assumed to be immature?

So is the “one-and-done” rule the best solution? Many would say it’s not. Of the 163 articles analyzed in this article, 54% of the articles suggested the rule should not continue as currently written compared to just 18% of the articles that suggested the rule should continue as written. Of the articles that suggested a change, the majority (23%) suggested the NBA adopt an eligibility rule similar to that of Major League Baseball. Basically, this would allow a player to either enter the professional ranks directly out of high school or they could attend college, but if they chose to go to school, they must stay at least three years. It should be noted that there is one very important issue that would need to be factored into this option: the lack of a true minor league system in NBA basketball. Where Major League Baseball has Single-A, Double-A, and Triple-A Leagues, as well as a plethora of independent leagues, the NBA only has its Development League. Furthermore, where Major League Baseball teams such as the Yankees have their own affiliate teams on each level (the Triple-A Scranton/Wilkes-Barre Yankees, the Double-A Trenton Thunder, and two Single-A teams, the Tampa Yankees and the Charleston RiverDogs), many NBA teams share affiliates with other teams, such as the
Fort Wayne Mad Ants that are affiliates of the Charlotte Bobcats, Detroit Pistons, Indiana Pacers and Milwaukee Bucks. Many would argue that the NBA lacks a true minor league system and has always depended on college basketball and European leagues to be its “minor leagues” by default. Therefore, for the NBA to adapt a system similar to that of Major League Baseball, the Developmental League would most likely have to be strengthened and expanded.

Of the 163 articles analyzed, 18% suggested that the NBA raise its age limit from 19 to 20. This would effectively “force” high school players to play at least two years of college basketball. NBA Commissioner David Stern has in fact pushed for a “two-and-through” rule, but it has not been popular with the National Basketball Players’ Association (Cherner). This rule would logically appease those who complained that before the “one-and-done” rule, teams wasted valuable draft picks on unproven commodities. The “two-and-through” rule would give teams two years to scout a potential draft pick as opposed to one year they currently have under the “one-and-done” rule. This rule would also appeal to those who believe one year of school makes a mockery of the “student/athlete” and complain that “one-and-done” players present recruiting difficulties for schools. However, those who believe the NCAA and its schools are currently exploiting players with the “one-and-done” rule would of course be opposed to adding an additional year to an existing rule that they already vehemently disagree with.

Of the 163 articles, 16% suggested to eliminate the rule. Again, proponents of both the NBA and college basketball would endorse this change. NBA fans would argue that it would benefit the NBA to have the best talent possible in the league as opposed to
the best talent arbitrarily available and would point to the fact that many of the best players currently in the NBA were “prep-to-pros”. College basketball fans would simply state that if a player doesn’t want to be in college, then he shouldn’t have to be. They would argue that the game as a whole would benefit from the increased stability of not having players take “pit stops” in the NCAA on their way to the NBA and many also believe that if the NBA eliminated the “one-and-done” rule, it would be a formidable step towards cleaning up the rules violations that have become consistent within NCAA basketball.

There were a variety of other solutions suggested in the articles. Some suggested that the NBA select a “draft panel” of former players, coaches, and scouts that would evaluate a high school player’s level of readiness for the NBA and then decide whether or not he should be eligible for the draft. Others suggested that the NBA be allowed to draft a player directly out of high school and should be allowed to either pay him or create a fund in his name for when he leaves school as to compensate the players. Some suggested that teams be allowed to select high school players, but if they do, they would be charged a tax of some sort to do so. Perhaps this would make some NBA teams think twice before drafting a player solely on potential without having seen him play against elite competition. Others, who champion the idea of the “student/athlete”, suggest that a high school player’s eligibility should be based on his academics. They would suggest that a minimum high school grade requirement be attached to NBA eligibility and if the player falls short, then he would have to go to college.
Limitations

This study analyzed articles pertaining to the “one-and-done” rule from 2006 to 2012. Unfortunately, only three articles were found from 2006 and four articles were found from 2007. This may be attributed to several of the limited abilities of several sites’ search engines. It is quite possible that many of the sites’ search engines only traced articles back four or five years, making articles from 2006 and 2007 difficult to locate. Also, the relatively small sample size presents difficulties in accurately assessing frames of the “one-and-done” rule in those respective years.

This study attempted to analyze how the media used past players’ performances to justify their respective frames. All articles were coded to locate a) whether a particular player was present in the article and b) whether the articles used past players’ performance in a positive tone, negative tone, both positive and negative tone, or if the article’s tone was neutral. One particular inefficiency in this method of coding can be observed in the following hypothetical case: If an article was to reference LeBron James’ performance in a positive tone, but also reference Kwame Brown’s performance in a negative the tone, the article would be coded as one that used past players’ performance in both positive and negative tones. While this method of coding does accurately reflect the overall tone of the article, it lacks clarity in regard to which particular players were presented positively or negatively. Perhaps if the coding sheet was composed differently and allowed the coder to make clear distinctions between those players whose performances were presented positively and those players whose performances were presented negatively, the study could give a more accurate reflection of how each individual’s past performance was referenced.
Future Research

The “one-and-done” rule is such a hot button issue because it deals with individuals’ freedom to pursue their own dreams in a capitalist society, as well as a business’s decision to install a rule that it believes helps its teams avoid making huge financial mistakes. The way the media presents this issue is of particular relevance because this is in many ways a case of those who have a voice versus those who do not. The NBA and NCAA are multi-million dollar companies with the access, tools, and connections to have their voice heard. Even though the “one-and-done rule” may be an NBA rule and the NCAA is powerless over its future, the NCAA certainly has the ability to have its voice heard. This can be viewed in stark contrast to the high school players who essentially remain voiceless. They don’t have the money, power, or visibility that the NBA and NCAA have. Their only hope is that their side is efficiently represented in the media.

The media’s framing of the impact of the “one-and-done” rule is just a small part of a much bigger issue. A lot of money is being made from amateur athletics and despite the fact these players have become their universities’ breadwinners, the issue of these “student/athletes’” effect on their schools is at times portrayed negatively. In many ways these schools have treated these players like commodities. Schools reap all of the financial benefits of their athletic performances, but once a student wants to move on with their own individual lives, he is often vilified for it. I would suggest that further research be done in the field of how the media frames a “student/athlete’s” rights opposed to the rights versus the rights of a university. For instance, earlier in 2012, Jarrod Uthoff, a freshman football player on University of Wisconsin, told his coach that he was
planning on transferring. He submitted a list of 25 schools that he was interested in exploring and Wisconsin denied permission to more than half of them. Wisconsin Head Coach Bo Ryan placed every Big Ten and ACC School on the list of schools that couldn’t contact Uthoff (Jenkins, 2012). Many would argue that allowing the school to more or less dictate where a student—not a paid employee under contract—can transfer to is an abuse of power.

In regards to the “one-and-done” rule, there are two significantly different approaches that can be taken with further research. One approach would be similar to this study. The research can explore the way the media frames the “one-and-done” rule and its impact on the NBA, NCAA, and/or the players. However, the study can take a more focused look on how past players’ performances and as alluded to earlier in the limitations section, may want to take a more concise approach to separating positive references from negative references to each individual player’s performance. Also, as time passes, NBA rosters change, and with it newer players come to light. This study only decided to look at how a pre-determined group of players’ performances were framed. However, “preps-to-pros” players such as Andrew Bynum and Amare Stoudamire, and “one-and-done” players such as John Wall and Greg Oden were omitted. In five years from now, researchers a) will have a much clearer idea of how players such as Wall and Bynum ultimately fared; and b) have a whole new group of players to analyze—players that are in 8th and 9th grade today.

Outside of studying media effects, research can also be conducted in regard to which groups of players statistically fare better in the NBA—“preps-to-pros”, “one-and-done” players”, or players that play two, three or four years of college basketball. This
study alluded to a 2009 ESPN study that stated that “preps-to-pros” fared slightly better than their “one-and-done” counterparts (Hoberstroh); however, this area of research still remains rather unexplored.
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Appendix 1: Coding Sheet

“ONE AND DONE RULE” CODE BOOK

Source: All articles from the sources will be recorded to keep track of publication and for future reference. The 3 sources will be recorded with the initials ESPN.com(ES), CBSSportsLine.com(CB), and HoopsHype.com(HW),

I. Article ID
   a. ESPN (ES/#month/#day/#year)
   b. CBS (CB/#month/#day/#year)
   c. HoopsWorld (HW/#month/#day/year)

II. Coder- Name of person doing coding

III. Source- list actual source material came from

IV. Date- Date article/blog was posted

V. Headline- Title of article or blog listed

VI. Length- approximate number of words in article/blog

VII. Word Count
   a. Number of words in each article is coded as either
      i. Short (0-300 words)
      ii. Medium (301-600 words)
      iii. Long (601 words+)

VIII. Article Type
   a. Articles coded for type
      i. If the article is authored by a staff columnist for the publication then it should be treated as a feature article and coded as 1.
      ii. If the article only contains facts then that article will be considered a news article and coded as 2.
      iii. A blog post would be coded as 3.
      iv. If the article is neither a feature or a news article or a blog or is a combination of both then that article will be considered N/A and would be coded as 4.
      v. (Feature=1, News=2, Blog=3, N/A=4).

IX. Organization Presence
   a. Articles are coded for the presence of an organization. The organization must be mentioned by name only once. The organization will be indicated by number assignment and will be coded by recording the corresponding.
      b. 1=NBA, 2=NCAA, 3=NBPA, 4=NBDL, 5=Other.

X. Article suggests the rule has been successful for NBA?
   a. 1=Yes, 2=No, 3=Neutral

XI. Article suggests the rule has been successful for NCAA?
   a. 1=Yes, 2=No, 3=Neutral
XII. Article suggests the rule has been successful for the players?
   a. 1=Yes, 2=No, 3=Neutral

XIII. Player presence
   a. Player presence
      i. Kobe Bryant
      ii. LeBron James
      iii. Dwight Howard
      iv. Kevin Garnett
      v. Kwame Brown
      vi. Derrick Rose
      vii. O.J. Mayo

XIV. Article use past players’ performance to justify their frames?
   b. 1=Yes, 2=No

XV. What was the view of those frames?
   a. 1=Positive, 2=Negative, 3=Neutral, 4=Both, 5=Made no reference to past players

XVI. Article believes the rule should continue as currently written?
   c. 1=Yes, 2=No, 3=Neutral

XVII. Does the article suggest a change to the rule?
1. Word Count: Short Medium Long

2. Article Type: Feature News Blog N/A

3. Organization Presence 1. NBA 2. NCAA 3. NBPA 4. Other

4. Does the article suggest the rule has been successful for the NBA? 
   1. Yes 2. No 3. Neutral

5. Does the article suggest the rule has been successful for the NCAA? 
   1. Yes 2. No 3. Neutral

6. Does the article suggest the rule has been successful for the players? 
   1. Yes 2. No 3. Neutral

7. Player presence: Kobe LeBron Howard Garnett Brown Rose Mayo

8. Did the article use past players’ performance to justify their frames? 
   1. Yes 2. No

9. Were those frames mostly positive, negative, neutral, or did they give examples of both? 
   5. It made no reference to past players

10. Does the article suggest the rule should continue as currently written? 
    1. Yes 2. No 3. Neutral
11. Does the article suggest a change to the rule?

__________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________

Appendix 2: Past Players Relevant to the “One-and-Done” Rule
Before the “One-and-Done” Rule…

The successful players

The following players are frequently cited as players who jumped directly from high school to the NBA successfully.

LeBron James

LeBron James had a very illustrious high school basketball career at St. Vincent/St. Mary High School in Akron, Ohio. He was three times selected as “Mr. Basketball Ohio” and was featured on the covers of several sports magazines such as SLAM Magazine, ESPN The Magazine, and Sports Illustrated all while in high school. James’s games were frequently televised nationally on ESPN2 and regionally on pay-per-view. The Cleveland Cavaliers selected James with the first overall pick in the 2003 NBA Draft. James was named the 2003/04 NBA Rookie of the Year after averaging over 20 PPG, 5 RPG, and 5 APG in his rookie season (becoming only the third player to do so after Oscar Robertson and Michael Jordan). At just 27 years old, James has been voted to eight NBA All-Star teams, has won the NBA Most Valuable Player award three times, won three gold medals with USA basketball, and has most recently won his first NBA championship as well as his first NBA Finals MVP. James is widely considered to be currently the greatest basketball player in the world.

Kobe Bryant

Kobe Bryant had an exceptional career playing at Lower Merion High School in the Philadelphia suburb of Lower Merion. After averaging 31.1 PPG and 30.8 PPG in his junior and senior years, Bryant was heavily recruited by NCAA powerhouses such as
Duke, North Carolina, and Michigan. Nevertheless, Bryant, by that time the Naismith High School Player of the Year as well as the Gatorade Men’s National Basketball Player of the Year, decided to forgo college hoops and enter the NBA Draft, a move that was still somewhat rare as at that time, Bryant was only the sixth player to do so. He was selected with the 13th overall pick in the 1996 NBA Draft by the Charlotte Hornets and was quickly traded to the Los Angeles Lakers. By all means, Bryant’s NBA career has been quite successful. He is a 14-time NBA All-Star and 5-time NBA Champion. Bryant, known for his superior all-around game, is not only the fifth highest scorer in NBA history but also a 12-time NBA All-Defensive team selection. In 2011, SLAM Magazine named Bryant as the 10th greatest player of all-time.

Kevin Garnett

Kevin Garnett had a successful high school career playing three seasons in Mauldin, South Carolina before playing his senior year at Farragut Career Academy in Chicago, Illinois. After averaging an impressive 25.2 PPG, 17.9 RPG, 6.7 APG, 6.5 BPG, and shooting 67% from the field, Garnett was named a McDonald’s All-American, “Mr. Basketball Illinois”, and USA Today’s National High School Player of the Year. Garnett then declared himself eligible for the NBA Draft, the first time a high school senior had done so since Darryl Dawkins and Bill Willoughby did twenty years prior. Kevin Garnett has gone onto have quite a successful NBA career. He is a 14-time NBA All-Star, was named NBA Most Valuable player in 2004, and won an NBA Championship in 2008. Despite scoring close to 25,000 points in his NBA career, he is perhaps best known for his defense and rebounding. Garnett was named NBA Defensive Player of the Year in 2004 and led the league in rebounding four consecutive seasons
(from 2004 to 2007). Garnett is widely considered to be one of the best power forwards to ever play the sport and is expected to be voted in as a first ballot Hall of Famer.

**Dwight Howard**

Dwight Howard had quite an impressive high school career at Southwest Christian Academy in Atlanta, Georgia. As a senior, Howard averaged 25 PPG, 18 RPG, and 8.1 BPG and led his school to a state title. Howard was widely recognized as the premier player in high school basketball his senior year and was named both Naismith Prep Player of the Year as well as Gatorade National Player of the Year. He was selected by the Orlando Magic with the first overall pick in the 2004 NBA draft. Howard, who at age 26 is still in the prime of his career, has been selected to six NBA All-Star teams and even led the Magic to only their second ever NBA Finals appearance in 2009. Known mainly for his defense and rebounding, Howard has been named NBA Defensive Player of the Year three times, and only trails Dennis Rodman (13.1 to 13.0) in career rebounding average. Although not yet an NBA Champion, Howard was recently traded to the Los Angeles Lakers, the preseason favorite to win a championship in 2013.

**The prep-to-pro “busts”**

The following players are frequently cited as players who jumped directly from high school to the NBA and did not fare particularly well.

**Kwame Brown**

Kwame Brown was routinely referred to as the “best high school player in his class”, which also included standout players such as Tyson Chandler and Eddy Curry. At the end of his career at Glynn Academy in Brunswick, Georgia, Brown was the school’s
all-time leader in rebounding, shot blocking, and even finished as the school’s second all-time scoring leader. Due to Brown’s incredible size at just 18 years old (6’10, 240 lbs.), Brown was widely seen as a “can’t miss” prospect and was selected directly out of high school by the Washington Wizards in the 2001 NBA Draft. Perhaps due to a lack of maturity, Brown struggled during his rookie season averaging just 4.5 PPG and 3.5 RPG. He played four more seasons in Washington, playing perhaps his best season as a pro in 2003/04 averaging 10.9 PPG and 7.4 RPG. Brown has since been on seven NBA teams, most recently signing with the Philadelphia 76ers in the summer of 2012. In his 11-year career, he has averaged just 6.8 PPG and 5.6 RPG, despite making over $66 million. Now in his 30s, Brown has been labeled an “NBA bust” not only to his untapped potential and lack of maturity, but mainly because he proved to be a tremendous waste of both money and an invaluable draft pick.

After the “One and Done” Rule…

The “Compromised Student/Athlete”

The following players are frequently cited as players who only played one season of college basketball because they “had to” and if the “one-and-Done” rule had not been in place, would have most likely jumped from high school to the NBA.

O.J. Mayo

O.J. Mayo began playing high school basketball while in 7th grade at Rose Hill Christian High School in Ashland, Kentucky. He averaged 23.1 PPG and 20.5 PPG his 7th and 8th grade year respectively. After moving to North College High School in Cincinnati, Ohio, Mayo was named “Mr. Basketball Ohio” his sophomore and junior
years. By his senior year, Mayo had become so popular that NBA stars such as LeBron James and Carmelo Anthony were attending his games. Due to the renegotiated CBA and the “one-and-done” rule, Mayo enrolled at USC in 2007. In May 2008, it was revealed that Mayo had received numerous gifts in violation of NCAA rules before and during his time at USC. In January 2010, it had been determined that Mayo was ineligible for the 2007/08 season due to the improper benefits, and USC was forced to vacate its 21 wins from that season. Opponents of the “one-and-done” rule routinely cite Mayo as an example of an individual that never wanted to attend college, but was left little choice due to the NBA’s new eligibility standards. They believe if Mayo was allowed to pursue his NBA dreams, he would’ve never needed any “improper benefits”. The NCAA believes players such as Mayo “compromise the student/athlete”.

**Derrick Rose**

Derrick Rose played high school basketball at Simeon Career Academy in Chicago, Illinois. Rose averaged 19.8 PPG and 8.3 APG his sophomore season and was named a Parade Third Team All-American. During Rose’s junior year, he led his team to a Chicago Public League championship and a state title. Rose was again named to several All-American teams. In his senior year, Simeon again won the Chicago Public League championship and another state title. By the end of his high school career, Rose’s record with Simeon was 120-12, and he was named “Mr. Basketball Illinois”. In 2009, ESPN RISE named Rose the decade’s third best high school point guard. Following high school, Rose decided to enroll at the University of Memphis to play for John Calipari, a coach known for helping players get into the league quickly. Rose had a successful year at Memphis, in which the team went 38-2 but ultimately lost to the
University of Kansas in the NCAA Championship game. The Chicago Bulls then selected Derrick Rose with the first overall pick in the 2008 draft. Nonetheless, in the summer of 2008, the NCAA sent a letter to Memphis charging them with knowing that Rose had someone else take his SATs for him. Allegations soon followed that Memphis paid for Rose’s brother, Reggie, to travel with the team. In August of 2008, the NCAA vacated Memphis’ 2007/08 season. Critics of the “one-and-done” rule routinely cite Rose as an example of a player who is “compromising the student/athlete” and believe that if Rose was allowed to pursue his NBA dreams after high school, he would’ve never went to Memphis and subsequently would not have committed any violations.

Appendix 3: Player Presence Results

Individual Player’s Presence

Of the 163 articles examined in this study, 31% made reference to Kobe Bryant (see Figure 9). Of the 50 articles that made reference to Kobe Bryant, 44% referenced past players’ performance in a positive frame. Past players’ performance was referenced in a negative frame in 10% of the articles that made reference to Kobe Bryant. Both
positive and negative references to past players’ performance were found in 40% of the articles that made reference to Kobe Bryant, and 6% of the articles that made reference to Bryant had a neutral frame of past players’ performance.

Figure 9: Frames Found in Articles that Referenced Kobe Bryant

The majority of the articles in which Kobe Bryant was referenced suggested no change to the “one-and-done” rule (36%) (see Figure 10). Conversely, 24% of the articles suggested that the NBA eliminate the rule. Many articles (18%) suggested that the NBA adopt a rule similar to Major League Baseball’s eligibility rule. Other articles (16%) suggested that the NBA raise its age limit to 20 years old.
Of the 163 articles examined in this study, 31% of the articles made reference to LeBron James (see Figure 11). Of the 50 articles that made reference to LeBron James, 46% referenced past players’ performance in a positive frame. Past players’ performance was referenced in a negative frame in 8% of the articles that made reference to LeBron James. Both positive and negative references to past players’ performance were found in 38% of the articles that made reference to LeBron James, and 8% of the articles that made reference to James used neutral frames toward past players’ performance.
The majority of the articles in which LeBron James was referenced suggested both no changes to the “one-and-done” rule (26%) and that the NBA adopt a rule similar to Major League Baseball (see Figure 12). Conversely, 22% of the articles suggested that the NBA eliminate the rule. Many articles (16%) suggested that the NBA raise its age limit to 20 years old. Other articles (4%) suggested the NBA assemble a draft panel that decides which players are eligible for the NBA.
Of the 163 articles examined in this study, 21% of the articles made reference to Dwight Howard (see Figure 13). Of the 35 articles that made reference to Dwight Howard, 57% referenced past players’ performance with positive frames. Past players’ performance was framed negatively in 6% of the articles that made reference to Dwight Howard. Both positive and negative frames to past players’ performance were found in 29% of the articles that made reference to Dwight Howard, and 8% of the articles that made reference to Howard had a neutral frame of past players’ performance.

![Figure 13: Frames Found in Articles that Referenced Dwight Howard](image)

The majority of the articles in which Dwight Howard was referenced suggested no change to the “one-and-done” rule (34%) (see Figure 14). Conversely, 26% of the articles suggested that the NBA eliminate the rule. Many articles (16%) suggested that the NBA adopt a rule similar to Major League Baseball’s eligibility rule. Other articles (4%) suggested that the NBA raise its age limit to 20 years old.
Of the 163 articles examined in this study, 22% of the articles made reference to Kevin Garnett (see Figure 15). Of the 36 articles that made reference to Kevin Garnett, 33% of the articles referenced past players’ performance with positive frames. Past players’ performance was framed negatively in 14% of the articles that made reference to Kevin Garnett. Both positive and negative frames pertaining to past players’ performance were found in 45% of the articles that made reference to Kevin Garnett, and 8% of the articles that made reference to Garnett had a neutral frame of past players’ performance.
The majority of the articles in which Kevin Garnett was referenced suggested no change to the “one-and-done” rule (33%) (see figure 16). Conversely, 25% of the articles suggested that the NBA adopt a rule similar to Major League Baseball’s eligibility rule. Many articles (17%) suggested that the NBA eliminate the “one-and-done” rule. Other articles (14%) suggested that the NBA raise its age limit to 20 years old.
Of the 163 articles examined in this study, 12% articles made reference to Kwame Brown. Of the 20 articles that made reference to Kwame Brown, 0% of the articles referenced past players’ performance with positive frames (see Figure 17). Past players’ performance was framed negatively in 15% of the articles that made reference to Kwame Brown. Both positive and negative references to past players’ performance were found in 80% of the articles that made reference to Kwame Brown, and 5% of the articles that made reference to Brown had a neutral frames toward past players’ performance.

Figure 17: Frames Found in Articles that Referenced Kwame Brown

The majority of the articles in which Kwame Brown was referenced suggested no change to the “one-and-done” rule (45%) (see Figure 18). Conversely, 30% of the articles suggested that the NBA raise its age limit to 20 years old. Many articles (20%) suggested that the NBA eliminate the “one-and-done” rule. Other articles (14%) suggested that the NBA adopt a rule similar to Major League Baseball’s eligibility rule.
Of the 163 articles examined in this study, 20% of the articles made reference to Derrick Rose. Of the 32 articles that made reference to Derrick Rose, 22% of the articles referenced past players’ performance with positive frames. Past players’ performance was referenced with negative frames in 31% of the articles that made reference to Derrick Rose. Both positive and negative frames pertaining to past players’ performance were found in 44% of the articles that made reference to Derrick Rose, and 3% of the articles that made reference to Rose had a neutral frame of past players’ performance.
The majority of the articles in which Derrick Rose was referenced suggested no change to the “one-and-done” rule (40%). Conversely, 22% of the articles suggest that the NBA eliminate the “one-and-done” rule. Many others both suggested that the NBA raise its age limit to 20 years old (30%) or adopt a rule similar to Major League Baseball’s eligibility rule (30%).
Of the 163 articles examined in this study, 15% articles made reference to O.J. Mayo. Of the 24 articles that made reference to O.J. Mayo, 17% of the articles referenced past players’ performance with positive frames (see Figure 21). Past players’ performance was referenced with negative frames in 54% of the articles that made reference to O.J. Mayo. Both positive and negative references to past players’ performance were found in 29% of the articles that made reference to O.J. Mayo, and 0% of the articles that made reference to Mayo had a neutral frame of past players’ performance.

![Figure 21: Frames Found in Articles that Referenced O.J. Mayo](image)

The majority of the articles in which O.J. Mayo was referenced suggested no change to the “one-and-done” rule (54%) (see figure 22). Conversely, 25% of the articles suggest that the NBA eliminate the “one-and-done” rule. Many others suggested that the NBA adopt a rule similar to Major League Baseball’s eligibility rule (13%). Other articles suggest the NBA raise its age limit (4%) or install a high school academic requirement to enter the draft (4%).

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Figure 22: Rule Changes Suggested in Articles That Referenced O.J. Mayo

Past Players’ Performances’ Impact on Frames

Of the 163 articles analyzed, 58% of the articles used past players’ performances to justify their frames. No reference to past players’ performances was found in 42% of the articles. The majority of articles did not make reference to past player’s performances to justify their frames (37%) (see Figure 23). Conversely, 24% articles made positive references to past players’ performances. Many articles made both positive and negative references to past players’ performances (18%). Other articles made negative references to past players’ performances (17%). Some articles referenced past players’ performances, but did not do so in either a positive or negative manner (4%).
Figure 23: Frames Pertaining to Past Players’ Performances